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AUTHOR Westberg, Jane; Jason, Hilliard
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ABSTRACT

This document provides guidelines for persons who intend to supervise, plan, and implement workshops in educational administration for administrators and teachers in physicians assistants (PA) programs. The guidelines are also suitable for workshops for administrators and teachers in other health professions instructional programs, such as medical or nursing schools. Introductory materials provide brief overviews of the need for workshops in educational administration, cautions about such workshops, and overall planning and implementation considerations. The first of two major sections considers steps in planning a workshop: identifying the audience, assessing learning needs, selecting workshop leaders, formulating goals, selecting the workshop strategies and format, selecting instructional resources, and making arrangements for the workshop. The second section focuses on these areas of conducting and evaluating the workshop; creating and refining goals and strategies, fostering collaboration, and evaluating the workshop. Appendixes include materials from workshops, a paper on creative management of PA programs, a bibliography on personnel management, a paper on affirmative action and equal employment opportunities, a paper on financial management, and a bibliography on curriculum design. (YLB)

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WORKSHOPS IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION FOR ADMINISTRATORS/TEACHERS IN PA PROGRAMS

AN EDUCATIONAL RESOURCE DOCUMENT

by
Jane Westberg, Ph.D.
and
Hilliard Jason, M.D., Ed.D.
of
The National Center for Faculty Development
University of Miami School of Medicine
Miami, Florida

produced under a subcontract from
Association of Physician Assistant Programs
Arlington, Virginia

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DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES
Health Resources Administration
Bureau of Health Professions
Division of Medicine
Room 3-22 Center Building
3700 East-West Highway
Hyattsville, Maryland 20782

Project Officer: Margaret A. Wilson, Ph.D.

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INTRODUCTION

This document was written in partial fulfillment of the Health Resources Administration Contract 232-79-0023: "Develop, Implement, and Evaluate Workshops in Educational Administration for Key Teaching Administrators Involved in the Training of Physician Assistants". It is meant as a resource for persons who intend to supervise, plan and/or carry out workshops in educational administration for administrators and teachers who are in PA programs (or in other health professions instructional programs, such as medical or nursing schools).

To be optimally effective, workshops must be custom-designed to meet the unique needs of each particular workshop audience. The goals and strategies of individual workshops are also dependent on such factors as the skills of the workshop leaders, available financial resources, space, time and more.

For all these reasons, this document does not provide a blue print of a specific workshop. It is not possible to be responsive to the special needs of separate groups with a a single, standard workshop design. Instead of a fixed format, we provide some general guidelines to be considered when planning and implementing workshops. We have illustrated some of these ideas with materials (e.g., workshop goals, formats, instructional aids) which were used in the four workshops in educational administration for key teaching administrators in PA programs which were conducted as a major part of

the HRA Contract of which this document is a part. (Appendices A-C provide the names and affiliations of the following people: a) project staff members and the workshop faculty and staff, b) the advisory committee, and c) the workshop participants.)

Before discussing the specific strategies involved in planning and implementing workshops in educational administration, we provide brief overviews of the following topics:

(a) the need for workshops in educational administration,

(b) some cautions to remember when offering workshops, and

(c) some overall considerations in planning and implementing workshops.

THE NEED FOR WORKSHOPS IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

In PA Programs, as in medical and nursing schools and other instructional programs in the health professions, there are substantial numbers of "reluctant administrators". These are people who have been persuaded to accept positions of administrative leadership because they have performed well as teachers, clinicians, or even researchers. Most are devoted to their new responsibilities and are accomplishing a good deal. Many of them, however, feel some degree of discomfort with these responsibilities, which range from administering a course, clerkship or preceptorship to directing an entire instructional program.

For many of these people, the reluctance to be an educational administrator stems in large part from their lack of adequate preparation for this work. Even people with backgrounds in either education or administration can find themselves less than optimally

prepared. A background in education can be very useful to educational administrators. It can provide the basis needed for thinking through such issues as: setting the instructional priorities for their program or selecting the most appropriate strategies for helping students develop needed competencies. A background in education, however, usually does not prepare people for assuring that their programs are fiscally sound or for arranging conditions in which program staff work in optimally efficient, effective ways. Similarly, people with formal backgrounds in management may find they are able to handle many of the operational tasks well, but their lack of understanding of instructional issues can lead to inappropriate decisions, in such areas as determining the allocation of limited resources to those program elements which are most educationally sound.

Many educational administrators learn a fair proportion of what they need from their direct, "on the job" experiences. In fact, most have a good deal they can teach each other. This is a major reason why, as we will point out shortly, workshops for educational administrators are usually most helpful when they build on the participants' own experiences, and allow time for reflection and sharing.

Current economic conditions provide another reason why many health professions educators are reluctant to serve as administrators. In a time of scarce resources, such as we now have, administering an educational program is more challenging than ever. When programs must operate on a tight budget, even minor mistakes or losses of relatively small sources of funds can have dire

consequences. Further, in a time of austerity, unpopular decisions often have to be made, including the termination of some activities and the discontinuation of the services of some faculty or staff members.

For the person who is not equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills, the task of administering an instructional program can be discouraging, even debilitating. Yet, for the person who is appropriately equipped, the responsibility of being an administrator can be a rewarding, fulfilling challenge. In this document we seek to provide some guidance and direction for those who undertake to help administrators gain some of the capabilities they need to be effective and to find this important aspect of academic life satisfying.

A CAUTION ABOUT WORKSHOPS IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Becoming an effective educational administrator is a challenging, complex task, which cannot be achieved in one workshop; any more than a person can become an accomplished teacher or physican's assistant as a consequence of attending a single workshop. In a workshop, educational administrators can be provided with a variety of helpful instructional experiences, including: practicing new skills, receiving constructive feedback on their practice of these new skills, identifying other areas on which they need to work, and formulating plans for new programs or approaches to be tried in their home settings. While such activities, when implemented appropriately, can be genuinely helpful, they are insufficient. An individual workshop, to be optimally effective, needs to be part of a

larger plan, which might include such things as follow-up workshops, field experiences, and programs of self-study.

SOME OVERALL CONSIDERATIONS

The task of planning effective learning opportunities for educational administrators is similar to the task of planning effective learning opportunities for the health professions students in their programs. It is assumed that the educational administrators are attending the workshop with the intention that they will come away having undergone some significant learning - that they will have acquired and refined some new and lasting capabilities and understandings. To achieve such a worthy outcome, the workshop designers need to assure that they have provide for the following six conditions for lasting learning. These are the same conditions which the students in regular health professions programs need.

Six Conditions for Learning

Learners need:

1. ... a sense of direction;
2. ... to have a sense of commitment to the goals of the program;
3. ... opportunities for practicing the new capabilities they are meant to acquire;
4. ... constructive feedback on the practicing they do;
5. ... opportunities to "process" their learning;
6. ... a climate in which they feel able to take risks.

We will provide a brief description of each of these conditions, in turn.

...a sense of direction

The more people are certain about, and the clearer is their understanding of, whatever it is they need to learn, the more they are able to take responsibility for their own learning. If the learners find themselves spending time and energy trying to determine (or guess) what it is the leader wants them to learn, rather than getting down to the actual business of learning, the workshop will be substantially less effective than it can be. In addition, as mentioned earlier, most meaningful learning cannot be accomplished within the confines of a single workshop. Administrators need to practice and refine their new skills in their day to day work, following conclusion of the workshop. For this to happen, they need to be clear about what they are supposed to be working toward. One way of helping participants have a greater sense of direction is inviting them to be as active as possible in formulating the workshop goals. We will say more about this later.

...a sense of commitment

If busy educational administrators are going to invest their energy in learning to be more effective - particularly if this investment means taking time over and above their usual work - they need to be fully committed to learning whatever is being offered. Usually, such commitment derives from seeing clearly: that there are specific capabilities needed by educational administrators; that they do not yet have these abilities; that these abilities are learnable; and that these are skills which will enable them to be

more productive, efficient and effective. Again, if the participants have the opportunity to help formulate the workshop goals (e.g., defining what new skills will be addressed), they are more likely to be committed to mastering the new skills which are the focus of the workshop.

...opportunities for practicing new skills

If educational administrators are to acquire and incorporate new skills - make these skills part of their ongoing armamentarium - then neither hearing someone else talk about those skills nor watching others demonstrate these skills is sufficient. Just as the students in their programs need to practice the skills of their profession (such as eliciting information from a patient, formulating a diagnosis), so, too, educational administrators need opportunities to practice the skills they will use in their work (such as interviewing a protential new staff member, formulating a budget, arranging new clinical practice sites for students).

... constructive feedback

Contrary to the old adage, practice does not necessarily make perfect. Health professions students, for example, who are palpating for a patient's thyroid gland in the wrong part of their neck are typically doing so quite unknowingly. They might continue repeating this mistake over and over, if it is not called to their attention, of if they, in some other way, do not become aware of the error they are committing. Similarly, in the absense of constructive feedback or accurate self-critique, educational administrators can repeat mistakes again and again.

Further, educational administrators need to learn to critique

their own performance. When they are not in a workshop, or another situation where they can receive critique from others, they need to be able to: reflect on their performance, identify what they are doing adequately or well, identify what needs to be worked on and devise appropriate plans for atending to their areas of need. Much as the students in their programs need to become self-directed learners, so they can continually refine and upgrade their skills, so too the educational administrators need to be self-directed learners, who can continually enhance their own effectiveness.

... opportunities to "process" their learning

From the world of professional sports we have learned the important role that "processing" can play in the learning of complex skills. It has been found that athletes, such as skiiers, gymnasts and others, actually improve their performance more when they interrupt their practice to think intensively and systematically about what they have been doing than when they continue practicing. Similarly, the act of "processing" can be an important component of a program to help educational administrators refine and improve the capabilities they are seeking to master. Videotaping educational administrators while they are practicing the new skills they are learning, and then inviting them to review what they did, can provide a helpful aid to "processing". This issue will be expanded upon later.

... opportunities to take risks

The five conditions just described will not make much difference if a climate has not been created in which the learners (the administrators) are willing and able to take risks. Anyone who

has tried to learn to swim or ski or sail knows that there are certain physical risks which can attend some forms of learning. There are, in addition, various personal (psychological) risks associated with almost all meaningful learning. The process of trying to acquire a substantially different way of conducting oneself can bring with it the risks of: feeling embarassed at one's inevitably awkward initial efforts; having to accept that one is not currently as skilled or effective as one's preferred self-image; or, having to acknowledge one's limitations.

Unfortunately, the conditions which prevail in many instructional settings actually mitigate against learners taking risks. Too many health professions students, for example, find themselves in situations in which they will be demeaned, even ridiculed, by their teachers or their peers if they take risks which involve performing somewhat less well - or just differently - than is expected. In addition, some health professions students have the very real fear that in practicing a new skill, they will be hurtful to a patient.

In recognition of this issue, a number of programs are now making it easier for students to take risks. In these places, students who take risks are supported rather than put down. Further, "safe" environments are created for the practice of certain skills, like talking to or examining patients. Students, for example, are provided opportunities to practice with manikins or simulated patients before practicing with real patients.

Again, the parallel to student learning pertains. At workshops for educational administrators, there are a number of ways

in which simulations and other strategies can be used to help these learners feel open to taking risks. These matters, together with steps in satisfying the five other needed conditions of learning, will be discussed in subsequent sections of this document.

PLANNING THE WORKSHOP

There are numerous steps which need to be taken in planning a workshop: identifying the audience, assessing the characteristics and needs of those who will participate, selecting the workshop leaders, formulating the goals and strategies, making the logistical arrangements, and far more. Which steps you take and the order in which you take them depends on such factors as: who initiated the idea of the workshop, the extent to which the audience and workshop goals were preformulated or are still flexible, and your level of experience and competency in workshop design and execution.

For simplicity and clarity, we will make the assumptions that you are an educational administrator in a health professions training program, that you would like to set up a workshop for yourself and your colleagues, and that, although you will coordinate the overall workshop, you will invite consultants to serve as the workshop faculty. If this is not your situation, we hope you will not have difficulty making the necessary translations as you read the rest of this manual.

IDENTIFYING THE AUDIENCE

There is a wide range of possible audience for a workshop in educational administration. You can choose to limit workshop participants to people in your own program, you can include administrators from other programs in your institution, you can invite people from other health professions training programs in

other institutions, or you can undertake to provide for some combination of these groups. The decision you make will have several implications for the characteristics of, and the requirements for, the workshop you offer.

When deciding who should be invited to the workshop, some of the issues to keep in mind are:

-- whether there are enough educational administrators within your own program to merit a workshop

-- whether your program has the human and/or financial resources independently to mount a workshop

-- whether it would be desirable for you and your colleagues to have the opportunity to focus explicitly on your program's unique needs

-- the advantages and disadvantages of joining with others who are inside or outside your institution

ASSESSING THE LEARNING NEEDS

Workshops on educational administration which are based in a single program or institution often focus on a specific, identified need - or set of needs - within that program or institution. Some examples of such needs are:

- new administrators having to learn the particular strategies and policies used within that program or institution,
- current administrators needing to learn to use a new computerized system for budgeting and record keeping,
- current administrators wanting to learn to be more effective and systematic in evaluating staff performance.

The learning needs of the prospective participants can be identified at a number of different levels; - by educational administrators within a program, - by the senior administrator of an institution, - by administrators within a profession (e.g., directors of PA programs). Sometime, as in the case of this Health Resources Administration contract, the need is identified from outside the participant group (by the funding agency).

In many workshops of the type we are discussing, it is important to clarify the needs of both the program(s) which will be affected and of the participants who will be involved. If, for example, a decision has been made that all programs within an institution will use a new computerized budget system, it is important to find out such things as - the specific competencies administrators will need to master; each administrator's prior experiences, if any, with computerized budget systems; the extent to which the administrators are open to and/or committed to learning to use the new system; and the administrators' individual assessments of what they feel they need to learn.

Sometimes, the areas of focus for workshops are more open-ended. A group of administrators from several PA programs, for instance, might decide to join forces and hold a series of workshops to enhance their skills in educational administration. If the group has not had much experience together and if they have not yet decided on the direction(s) they want the workshops to take, the person who is coordinating the workshops and assessing the needs of the group might want to talk with individual participants or use a questionnaire in pursuing such issues as:

-- the areas in which participants would like to improve their skills as educational administrators;

-- the administrative tasks for which they are currently responsible;

-- the areas in which they have had formal preparation for their work;

-- the areas in which they have had "on the job" preparation;

-- the length of time they have served in their present positions;

-- the issues facing them which they see as most pressing; and

-- ideas and experiences they are willing to share with others participants.

SELECTING THE WORKSHOP LEADER(S)

A number of factors need to be considered in selecting workshop leaders. If the needs of the group have been identified, it is clearly desirable to find leaders with competence in helping groups meet those specific needs. Unfortunately, persons who are content experts in a given area, say, personnel management or financial planning, are not necessarily adept at helping others aquire or refine new skills. (Typically, subject matter experts have been well prepared in their field, but have had no preparation as teachers.) Many educational administrators will recognize this situation from their own experiences. A person who is, say, an effective biochemist or pharmacologist is not necessarily equipped to help students learn the biochemistry they need as clinicians. Even persons who are expert clinicians may not be effective at helping

health professions students become clinicians.

Another factor to consider is the importance of the leader being familiar with the world of the workshop participants. A workshop leader who uses educational and/or management jargon and who is unable to illustrate his or her ideas with examples from the participants' areas of experience is in danger of discomforting, even alienating the audience.

Ideally, the workshop leaders and, at least, representative workshop participants, are invited to be involved in the planning process from the beginning. Skilled workshop leaders will want to learn as much as possible about the participants and their needs prior to the workshop, and they will want to be involved in shaping the direction, format and content of the workshop.

FORMULATING THE GOALS OF THE WORKSHOP

As indicated earlier, one of the six desirable conditions of learning is a sense of direction. Well formulated goals can help to provide participants with that sense of direction, particularly if the goals have been jointly formulated by the workshop leaders and the participants.

Effective workshop goals:

-- are clearly stated,

-- are realistic and do-able,

-- are appropriate for the participants' stage(s) of development,

-- are not etched in stone.

...are clearly stated

Workshop goals need to be stated as explicitly as possible, while not being so detailed as to be confusing, or so narrow as to be confining. Striking the most appropriate balance, so as to achieve clarity and assist with providing a sense of direction, while not hampering flexibility or inventiveness, requires skill and care. If the workshop leader(s) and at least some workshop participants meet in advance of the workshop and together hammer out the goals, the chances that the goals will be understood and agreed upon are greatly increased.

...are realistic and do-able

Educational administrators are often practical people, who are interested in what will be useful to them, right here, right now. They are not likely, for instance, to want to take time working at learning to use new resources, like complex telephone systems, which they are not likely to find direct use for in their work. Again, if they are involved in formulating the goals, they can help assure that the goals are realistic, achievable and optimally suited to their needs.

...are appropriate for the participants' stage(s) of development

In too many situations, workshop leaders merely present lectures on given topics, without taking into account the range of backgrounds, experiences, and levels of interest among the participants. Even among a seemingly homogeneous group there are apt to be important variations in levels of readiness for particular ideas and experiences. It is often important for workshop leaders to conduct a

specific study of the participants' needs and special characteristics before the workshop, so that the program which is planned has a maximum likelihood of being on target.

...are not etched in stone

Although it is important for workshop goals to be stated clearly, it is equally important that they be viewed as tentative, modifiable and dynamic. Particularly when a group of people has not worked together before or when the group is pursuing a new area, it is likely that the goals formulated prior to the workshop will need to be modified. Sometimes, for example, an important new issue will surface and need attention. Frequently, groups overestimate what they will be able to address in one workshop. If goals need to be modified or changed, this is usually a task which is best undertaked jointly by the participants and the leaders, not by the leader(s) alone.

The goals used in the workshops in educational administration for staff of PA programs are provided in Appendix D. These are the goals which the Bureau of Health Professions wanted addressed. To assure the optimal flexibility which was needed because of constraints on participant involvement in prior planning, the goals are stated as opportunities, rather than in terms of expected or intended outcomes.

SELECTING WORKSHOP STRATEGIES

The selection or invention of strategies for achieving the goals which had been identified can be a critical step in determining the effectiveness of a workshop. The potential value of any workshop strategy which is being considered can be determined, at least in part, by considering the extent to which it is consistent with the six conditions of learning, listed earlier. That is, it is important to determine the extent to which the strategy:

- is consistent with and supportive of the goals or direction of the workshop;
- helps administrators become/remain committed to the goals of learning, in general, and the the goals of the workshop, in particular;
- provides opportunities for practice;
- provides opportunities for constructive feedback;
- provides opportunities for "processing" new learning;
- provides opportunities for risk taking.

While formal presentations, as via lectures or lecturettes, can help participants gain an overview or a consolidation of an area and can help learners gain a sense of direction, most often these strategies do not give learners opportunities for practice, feedback, processing or risk taking. On the other hand, small group discussions, role playing, and one-to-one supervision are strategies which lend themselves more easily to fulfilling the six conditions.

A further consideration in selecting workshop strategies is the

skills of the workshop leaders. Leading small group discussions, supervising role playing sessions, and making presentations all require a specific set of skills. Not uncommonly a workshop leader is better equipped to utilize some strategies than others.

Some Effective Workshop Strategies

The following are some strategies which allow for the six conditions of learning. While all the desired conditions can be achieved with these strategies, leaders who are skilled and experienced in their use are needed to assure that they are achieved. (All of these strategies were utilized in the workshops for PA staff which were part of this Contract.)

Workshop Projects

An effective techique for helping assure that participants are committed to the goals of the workshop and that their learning will be relevant to their needs is inviting them to select or design a workshop project which is based on a real concern in their own program. In a workshop involving teams of educational administrators from a number of PA programs, for example, one team might be concerned that their office staff is not optimally productive. A team from another program might want to find a solution to a situation in which their faculty members are not providing the kind of feedback on student performance that is needed for such administrative decisions as determining whether students are truly ready to be promoted to the next level in the program.

It is important to inform the participants well before the workshop that a project will be undertaken, so they can: discuss it

with colleagues, if necessary; begin working on it before the workshop, if appropriate; and bring relevant materials with them to the workshop. It can be useful for the workshop leader to telephone people in advance of the workshop, both to help the participants with their thinking and to help them identify any materials which will be needed at the workshop for the projects.

At the workshop itself, there are a variety of materials which can be used to aid people in thinking through their project. Figure 1 is a worksheet people can use to:

1. define the problem to be resolved;
2. describe the situation as it now is (status quo);
3. describe the ideal situation (what they want to achieve).

Worksheet B, Figure 2, is designed to help the administrator:

1. identify all the forces or factors at work in the situation;
2. identify which forces are facilitating forces (forces helping lead toward desired changes), and which forces are restraining forces (forces which are tending to resist or delay needed changes, and are working toward maintaining the status quo).

Worksheet C, Figure 3, can be used to produce a visual image of the facilitating and restraining forces.

Figure 1

FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

Worksheet A

1. Clearly state your problem:

2. What is the present situation?

3. What is the ideal you wish to achieve?

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Figure 2

FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

Worksheet B

LIST ALL THE FORCES AT WORK IN THE SITUATION

	Facilitating Force ( )	Restraining Force ( )	Relative Strength (1-5)
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )
_____	( )	( )	( )

Relative Strength

1 = has almost nothing to do with the thrust toward or against change.

2 = has relatively little to do with the thrust toward or against change.

3 = is of moderate importance in the thrust toward or against change.

4 = is of considerable importance in the thrust toward or against change.

5 = is of highest importance in the thrust toward or against change.

FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

Worksheet C

FACILITATING FORCES	5	4	3	2	1	STATUS QUO	1	2	3	4	5	GOAL RESTRAINING FORCES
a)												a)
b)												b)
c)												c)
d)												d)
e)												e)
f)												f)
g)												g)
h)												h)
i)												i)
j)												j)
k)												k)
l)												l)
m)												m)

Figure 3

Most commonly, workshop projects involve developing plans of action for actual projects which the participants intend to carry out in their own programs. Administrators who are concerned about the lack of productivity of their office staff, for instance, might decide that one way to better understand and then address this issue is by holding a staff retreat, focusing on the issues and possible solutions. Their workshop project could be the planning of aspects of that retreat.

Figure 4 is a planning chart administrators can use when thinking through the tasks which need to be carried out. It can also be helpful for identifying the people who need to be involved in carrying out the tasks and for defining the specific roles they will play. Figure 5 is designed to help people use the planning chart.

If participants engage in workshop projects, it is important that time be provided for the presentation and discussion of the various tasks and exercises. Further, it is usually helpful if participants present their projects to one another (in teams or small groups) and give feedback to one another from time to time during the development of their ideas.

If there will be a follow up workshop, the administrators can actually carry out part or all of their plans of action in between workshops, so they can then report on the results at the follow-up workshop. Generally, their reports about the steps which did not work can be just as instructive to others as are their comments about which steps were successful.

National Center for Faculty Development

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PROGRAM PLANNING CHART

CODE: I - INITIATES (RESPONSIBLE FOR)
R - RELEVANCE (AFFECTED BY)
J - JURISDICTION (AUTHORITY OVER)
E - EXPERTISE (CONTRIBUTES TO)

PROJECT ACTIVITY: _____

PARTICIPANTS / TASKS						

Figure 4

Figure 5

Using Program Planning Chart

To use this chart, first identify the major tasks to be accomplished and then list them in their logical sequence. Next, list across the top of the sheet the specific participants within your organization who will be involved/affected. (Note: identify real people, not organizational roles.) The balance of the exercise involves assigning a specific function or functions or each individual or group using the following criteria:

I (Initiation): This is the person responsible for assuring the design and success of the program.

R (Relevance): Person(s) affected by the program.

J (Jurisdiction): Person(s) who can exercise (positive or negative) authority over the program.

E (Expertise): Person(s) who can contribute valuable views and/or information to the program.

IMPORTANT: In assigning responsibilities and functions, it is important that for each task there is only one "I" (initiator) assigned. Each person, however, may have more than one function(e.g., both expertise and relevance).

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Responding to Trigger Tapes on Administrative Issues

"Trigger tapes" are very brief, incomplete episodes (usually captured on videotape, but occasionally on film) which stimulate group discussion of an issue. Usually, they are less than three minutes long and are designed to be interrupted. One series of trigger tapes entitled, "Issues in Faculty Development" (a series available through the National Center for Faculty Development) contains the following 12 episodes, based on issues that a group of educational administrators in PA programs agreed were generally common problems:

1. A teacher complains to an administrator about a student whom she says is not cooperative because he challenges what she says.
2. A student complains to an administrator about the two classes of patient care being given at their institution (one type of care for the poor and another for those with money), and implies she must take action.
3. An angry student storms into the administrator's office, complaining about an evaluation by one of his teachers, whom he accuses of being a bigot.
4. A colleague commiserates with an administrator who is about to meet with an employee to tell her that she will be dismissed unless her performance improves.
5. In a rather insensitive way, the administrator presented in the previous episode tells the employee she will be dismissed if her performance does not improve. She

protests.

6. The administrator presented in episodes 4 and 5 meets with the same employee. This time he is seeking to be more friendly and soft, though he does tell her that her evaluations have not been good. She protests that she did not know she was being evaluated. The episode ends with the administrator losing control.

7. The same administrator who was in episodes 4-6 again meets with the employee who was considered to be performing inadequately. This time, however, he begins the encounter by inviting her own self-critique. She now acknowledges that things have not been going well.

8. A faculty member tells an administrator that he cannot participate in the interviewing course because he thinks the proposed strategy of videotaping students is inhumane. The administrator helps the faculty member see that his own past negative expriences with video could be an asset, enhancing his sensitivity as a teacher. The faculty member decides to talk with the course director.

9. The administrator and teacher, presented in episode 8, meet later in a hallway, where the teacher explains that his meeting with the course director did not go well. The administrator arranges to meet with the teacher again in his office.

10. The administrator realizes he had tried to solve the problem too hastily and superficially the first time.

He now helps the teacher see potential value in the interviewing course and gets the teacher to agree to a 3-way meeting, involving the two of them and the director of the interviewing course.

11. A student complains to an administrator about the second class treatment she and her peers are getting on a particular rotation.

12. A student complains to an administrator about the sexist attitudes and behaviors of the preceptor to whom she is assigned.

Using trigger tapes effectively involves an explicit set of skills and strategies which are described in the Guide for Users of the Trigger Tapes: "Issues in Faculty Development", which accompanies the tapes. Some of the advantages of using trigger tapes are as follows.

Trigger tapes can:

... provide participants with a common experience to which they can react;

... be based on issues deemed important by participants;

... provide opportunities for thinking through and/or practicing the management of specific situations;

... provide opportunities for participants to receive constructive feedback;

... provide opportunities for risk taking.

Creating Check Lists for Administrative Tasks

Another way to help administrators be active participants in

their learning and to give them opportunities for practice and feedback is asking them, prior to the workshop (e.g., via a questionnaire or in person), to identify some one-to-one and small group tasks which they would like to be able to manage more effectively. Then, the workshop leader can generate exercises for the workshop which are built around these very issues and tasks. These exercises, and their accompanying check-lists, can help administrators think through useful strategies they can try using, both during role-playing in the workshop and later in their own institutions.

Figures 6 and 7 provide an illustration of an exercise which involves generating a self-check list. It was designed around a task and an issue identified by a group of educational administrators. When using these worksheets, administrators are asked to read through the instructions and the scenario (see Figure 6). They are then encouraged to generate a list of the steps they feel should be taken. (Note: Figure 8 is not given to the participants at this time. It is used as a handout, as we will describe.) Once everyone has noted down their preferred steps, the group leader invites them to present their lists, and she or he, using a flip chart or an overhead projector, collects these suggestions, creating a joint group list. Figure 8 can then be handed out, if desired. It is important to explain though, that this list is not meant to be regarded as containing the "answers". Rather, it should be seen as a selection of ideas from those generated by other workshop groups. It can be used as a counterpoint to the present groups' list. Generally, the new list generated at most workshops proves to be richer and fuller

than the handout.

Figures 9 and 10 are worksheets based on a typical small group administrative task. When using these forms, as in the previous case with the one-to-one administrative task, the following steps are recommended: 1) the group is asked to read the instructions and the scenario; 2) each person is asked to generate his or her own list; 3) the leader creates a group list based on the ideas offered by the group members; 4) participants are given the handout, Figure 11, if it seems appropriate.

ADMINISTRATIVE SUPERVISION

This exercise is designed to help you think through some of the steps which need to be taken by an administrator who is working with a member of the staff, faculty or student body who has been identified (or who identifies himself/herself) as having a problem. The form on the next page can apply to a variety of situations. Yet, you might find it helpful to have a specific situation in mind as you develop your check list of steps to be taken. The scenario below can provide such a situation.

Scenario

You have been told that a new secretary is not being very productive. The staff member with whom she works has complained that she takes three times as long as she should to complete assignments. His recommendation to you is that she be dismissed at the end of the 6-week probation period.

This new secretary has not worked directly with you, and you have not yet had a chance to get to know her. As the senior administrator, however, you feel you need to determine whether you can support the decision to let her go. You decide to schedule a meeting with her.

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ADMINISTRATIVE SUPERVISION

Did I:

BEGINNING OF SESSION

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

DURING SESSION

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

END OF SESSION

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

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ADMINISTRATIVE SUPERVISION

DID I:

BEGINNING OF SESSION

_____ Establish purpose of session (e.g., why I have asked this person to meet with me, what do I hope to accomplish)?

_____ Invite person to describe the situation as s/he sees it, in her/his own words?

DURING SESSION

_____ Gather further information by:

-inviting the person to elaborate?

-asking appropriate open-ended questions?

-asking pertinent specific questions?

_____ Determine if further information is needed and, if so, how it is to be gathered and from whom?

_____ Formulate a "problem-list", if possible?

_____ Decide on an immediate plan of action, if appropriate?

_____ Decide on a long-range plan of action, if appropriate?

END OF ENCOUNTER

_____ Assure that the person with whom I am working understands and is committed to the plan of action?

_____ Make plans for a follow-up, if appropriate?

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CONDUCTING TASK-ORIENTED GROUPS

This exercise is designed to help you think through some of the steps which need to be taken by the leader of a group charged with accomplishing a task, to help insure the success of the meeting. The form to be completed on the next page can apply to any task-oriented group. Yet you might find it helpful to have a specific situation in mind.

Scenario

You are a member of the full-time staff of a training program. Lately, there has been considerable conflict between students and preceptors during the preceptorships. The medical director of your program has asked you to select 4 preceptors and 4 students and to meet with them and plan a half-day student-preceptor retreat. You are to decide on the 3 issues which will be the focus of that retreat and develop the schedule for the day.

What steps would you take before the meeting, at the beginning of the meeting, during the meeting and at the conclusion of the meeting?

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SELF CHECK LIST FOR TASK-ORIENTED GROUP MEETING

DID I...:

BEFORE MEETING

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

AT BEGINNING OF MEETING

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

DURING MEETING

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

AT CONCLUSION OF MEETING

____ _____

____ _____

____ _____

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Figure 11

SELF CHECK LIST FOR TASK-ORIENTED MEETING

DID I...

BEFORE MEETING

_____Select group members?

_____Establish a convenient meeting time and place?

_____Assure members understand the task(s) of the group and are willing to participate?

_____Plan a strategy for the meeting (e.g., approach(es) you would like to take)?

AT BEGINNING OF MEETING

_____Attend to introductions, if necessary?

_____Assure members understand the task(s)?

_____Present your intended approach to task(s) or jointly formulate approach?

_____Refine, if necessary, and secure agreement on approach(es)?

_____If appropriate, determine individual responsibilities during meeting (e.g., record keeper, subgroup leader)?

_____If necessary, establish "ground rules" (e.g., time limits)?

DURING MEETING

_____Minimize distractions and disruptions?

_____Keep group aware of time limits and other constraints?

_____Provide intermittent summaries, as necessary, of what group has accomplished and what still needs to be done?

_____Assure members are heard and understood by each other?

AT CONCLUSION OF MEETING

_____Review what has been accomplished and what needs to be accomplished?

_____Make plans for follow-up, if appropriate?

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Role Playing Around Administrative Issues

Still another activity which can be effective in satisfying the six conditions of learning is role playing done in conjunction with videotaping and playback. This is equally useful for dealing with one-to-one or small group administrative challenges. If the focus is on one-to-one administrative supervision, for example, two workshop participants are invited to volunteer to serve as role players: one in the role of the administrator and one in the role of a staff member. Figure 12 is a sample of a "script" which can be given to the person playing the administrator. Figure 13 is a sample of a script for a staff member.

The two role players are asked to study their scripts for a few minutes and then to act out the situation for about 5 minutes, while being videotaped. The group is reminded that managing such a situation effectively in real life would probably take 30 minutes to an hour. The role players are <u>not</u> asked to artificially condense their session, but, rather, to simply proceed at their own pace in managing the situation at hand, recognizing that they would arbitrarily be cut off by the group leader after about 5 minutes. They are told that the focus will only be on the first few minutes of the interview. No props are needed. The two role players arrange their chairs so their facial expressions can be captured on videotape.

Following the role play, the person who has assumed the role of the administrator is invited to share such things as his or her: feelings about the experience; intended strategies for the session with the "staff member", and; impressions about what went well and

what did not go as well as s/he would have liked. The "administrator" is asked what she or he would like to focus on during the review of the tape.

During the review of the tape, the leader helps the "administrator" look at the multiple "decision points" which occured during the interview. These are the many occasions when the "administrator" had the opportunity to move the interview in a variety of directions. For instance, in the situation presented in Figures 12 and 13, the "administrator" can approach the situation in a number of ways, including: (1) telling the basic science teacher about all of the bad reports that have been received about his or her teaching; (2) telling the teacher his or her services are no longer needed; (3) inviting the teacher to discuss how he feels things are going in the class; and more.

At the key "decision points", the leader helps the administrator look at what he did; why the particular strategy was selected; what other strategies were available; and the advantages and disadvantages of the various options.

When appropriate, the person playing the role of the teacher can be asked to reflect on such issues as: - how he was feeling at various key times during the interview; - his perception of what the administrator was trying to accomplish; - his perspective about what was blocking and what was facilitating communication.

If there has been a prior session on giving and receiving constructive feedback, the other workshop participants who have been witnessing the interaction can be invited to join the process. They are asked to utilize approaches which will help the "administrator"

Figure 12

ADMINISTRATOR

You are responsible for the PA program, and it has fallen to you to undertake a rather difficult task, which your colleagues and students all agree must be done.

Your program has depended from its beginning on the junior staff and residents from the Department of Family Medicine for the main supervision of your students' learning of clinical skills. There has been a distinct awareness among the students that many of the family medicine staff and residents treat them as "second class citizens". They are given very little time or attention and are even dealt with in a somewhat unfriendly manner.

You suspect there is a basic attitudinal problem in the Department of Family Medicine and that it may even originate right at the top, with the chairperson. You have requested today's meeting with him/her in his/her office to begin to explore this uncomfortable issue.

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CHAIRPERSON OF FAMILY MEDICINE

Your department has been responsible for providing the junior staff and residents who supervise the PA students in their learning of clinical skills. You had initially taken on this responsibility out of commitment to the concept of enlarging the numbers of physician extenders. With each passing year, it has become clearer that the residents and staff feel somewhat put upon by this responsibility. They find it competitive with their own clinical obligations and are developing some ambivalence as to whether physician extenders might be a potential source of jeopardy to the field of family medicine.

The director of the PA program is coming to see you today, at his/her request. If the quality and quantity of supervision provided by your department turns out to be the issue, you are unsure what stand you would like to take. If the director is unpleasant, demanding, or makes no effort to understand your perspective, you will be tempted to tell him/her to find the supervision the PA students need somewhere else.

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reflect on and make discoveries about his performance, as opposed to telling the "administrator" what he should or should not have done.

Role playing can also be a dynamic technique for looking at the issues involved in dealing effectively with a group of people. Once the workshop participants have generated a list of steps which generally need to be taken prior to a meeting, at the beginning of a meeting, during the meeting and at the conclusion of a meeting (see Figures 9-11), they can be presented with a role-playing scenario, such as the one in Figure 14. One person is asked to serve as the group leader. Up to 10 people are asked to serve as group members.

Each of these group members is given a role which serves to highlight some of the issues which can be faced by leaders of small group discussions or committee deliberations. The following are some illustrations of group participant role assignments:

Role 1 - You consider yourself at least as well equipped to be a group leader as the person who is in that role. If the leader seems at all hesitant, you jump in and try to take over as leader.

Role 2 - You are a "peace maker". If there is any conflict in the group, you try to work with the leader in resolving it.

Role 3 - You enjoy talking. You do so whenever possible. Once you get the floor, you talk as long as possible.

Role 4 - You enjoy engaging in private conversations with people during the meeting.

Task-Oriented Group

SMALL GROUP LEADER'S TASK

You are a faculty member. Today you are attending a meeting of all the faculty in your program, which was to have been chaired by one of your colleagues.

At the last minute the director of your program told you that your colleague had an emergency and asked you to chair the meeting instead.

The director explained your task is to help the faculty reach consensus on a plan for evaluating the teaching in your program. You already sense the faculty is divided on the issue: for example, some faculty think students should evaluate teachers; others strongly disagree.

You have no time to plan for the meeting. Your colleague had not prepared an agenda or other materials.

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Role 5 - You are accustomed to catching up on your rest during meetings.

Role players are asked to moderate their roles according to the chemistry of the situation. If, for example, the person who has been assigned Role 5 feels genuinely interested because of the way the leader is handling the group, she does not have to feign sleepiness.

Again, the role players are told that the session presented in the scenario might normally take an hour or more, but, for learning purposes, they will role-play only the first part of the meeting. (The first 10 minutes usually provide more than ample material for an hour of subsequent review and discussion.) The group, including the leader, is arranged in a semi-circle, so the camera can have access to everyone's facial expressions.

As with the review/critique session for one-to-one administrative supervision, the emphasis is again on being helpful to the person who volunteered to be the "administrator", the group leader. Again the "administrator" is invited to discuss her feelings, reactions, strategies, and impressions of what went went well and what she would like to have done differently. The "administrator" is free to stop the tape wherever she chooses. In particular though, with the help of the leader, the tape is stopped at key "decision points". Some of the issues which usually surface are:

- how to quickly "diagnosis" what kinds of people are in a group and where they stand on issues;

- how to manage difficult group members, like private talkers, sleepers, and those who want to take over the leadership of the group;
- when and how to share power; and
- how to develop group cohesiveness and a sense of "ownership" of the issues facing the group.

Those persons playing the roles of group members can offer valuable contributions regarding their feelings, reactions, perceptions of what the leader was trying to do, and their perceptions of what facilitated or blocked their participation. As, in the one-to-one role playing, people contributing to the discussion are urged to facilitate the "administrator's" discovery rather than telling her what to do. It can be useful for other members of the group to suggest other strategies, as long as they do so in helpful, constructive ways.

Interactive Presentations

As mentioned earlier, the group presentation is not a strategy which lends itself to giving participants an opportunity to practice new skills, give and receive feedback, or process their learning. A presentation can be useful, though, if the leader is alert to the needs of the participants; if he interacts with them throughout the presentation (not just at the end); if he uses media (such as videotapes) to help bring the ideas to life; and if the presentation is skillfully introduced, in the right time and right place, as determined by the needs of the participants.

Brief presentations, including demonstrations, can be used, for example, at the beginning of an activity to help orient participants to what they will be doing. Interactive presentations can also be useful at the end of some workshops, to help participants pull together some of their experiences and think through some of the steps they would like to take subsequent to the workshop.

Appendix E contains the descriptive outline of some of the issues and concepts discussed in an interative presentation given at the end of the workshop for educational administrators in physician assistant training programs.

SELECTING THE WORKSHOP FORMAT

Once the major goals and strategies of the workshop have been identified, or, at least tentatively developed, work can begin on sketching out the workshop format. The following are some thoughts to keep in mind while pusuing this step:

- Six hours of participation in an intensive, interactive workshop is usually all that most participants can comfortably handle in one day. If they have been challenged effectively, and are exploring new ways of thinking and conducting themselves, they usually need time, both for some intermission and for some unstructured processing; whether on their own or with a few others.
- Most busy educational administrators cannot afford to be away from their offices for more than three days at a time.
- The value of the workshop itself can be enhanced by giving participants things to begin working on before they come to

the workshop. (The Workshop Project, described earlier, is an example.)

- Whenever possible, a single workshop should be seen as but part of a more comprehensive plan which includes, subsequent workshops as well as other learning oportunities between workshops.
- To keep participants awake and involved, the activities need to be varied and well timed. For example, a demonstration in which people are somewhat passive usually needs to be followed by an activity in which people are highly involved, as in role-playing or with a lively small group discussion.
- If people are to have opportunities to be active participants, it is usually best to spend most of the time working in groups of 12 people or less. (This can mean having two or three groups running simultaneously.)
- Because different people tend to learn best in different ways (some thru hearing, some thru seeing, some needing to be directly engaged in doing for themselves), it is usually desirable to offer a variety of types of activities.
- Most people need to have a break, at least a brief stretch break, about once an hour. This is particularly true if they have been just sitting, not moving around.
- Educational administrators, by and large, are overworked people, who will welcome the opportunity to balance the hard work associated with the workshop with times for genuine play and relaxation.

SELECTING INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

There are a number of technological resources which can enhance workshops in educational administration.

Film and slide projectors and slide projectors linked to audio recorders have been used at workshops for many years. Overhead projectors, which can be used either with prepared materials or for writing new material which is generated during the workshop, can be very helpful, if used flexibly and as part of interactive presentations, not as mechanisms for offering long, uninterrupted didactic content.

Videotechnology has revolutionized the teaching of skills. A video playback unit and a monitor (TV set) are needed for the presentation of pre-recorded video programs, such as trigger tapes. Particularly with trigger tapes, but also in the case of many other video programs, it is important to have a "pause control" - a switch on, or attached remotely to, the video unit, enabling the leader to stop the playback at an exact point during a discussion, and then restart at that point without delay.

Videotechnology is also used in videotaping and critiquing role playing. In this case, a video camera is needed, in addition to a video recorder-playback unit and a monitor. Again the "pause control" feature can be very helpful. It is often best to invite the person who took the lead in the role-playing to be the one who controls the stopping and restarting of the video playback.

Microcomputers are rapidly becoming part of another revolution in teaching. An increasing number of educational administrators are using microcomputers in their own work. Some of

the administrative tasks these machines can help people handle are:

- the preparation of budgets
- the monitoring of budgets
- scheduling of classes and students
- recording and monitoring the selection process for prospective students
- logging students' experiences on clerkships and rotations
- monitoring the students' progress in the program.

At workshops, educational administrators who are new to microcomputers can learn about some of their uses. Those who are already familiar with microcomputers can learn of additional uses for them. Administrative management problems could be constructed for administrators to work through on a computer or on a computer linked with video. This system could offer the possibility of exciting new ways of learning, which would satisfy the six conditions for learning. For example, educational administrators working through well constructed administrative management problems on the computer, linked to a video disk or videorecorder could be given a clear sense of direction. Vivid visual images, such as those of an angry staff member, could stimulate their interest and help them sense the reality of the problem they are encountering. The administrators could practice skills, particularly the skills of decision making, over and over again, as necessary, taking advantage of the unlimited patience and the substantial flexibility of the computer. Risk taking would be possible without harmful consequences to real people. Feedback could be immediate and constructive. Built in questions could stimulate the administrators' processing of the learning they are

doing.

Only a limited number of written materials are currently available for administrators responsible for instructional programs in the health professions. The following guidelines and annotated bibliographies, which appear in the appendices noted, provide an illustration of some such materials.

Appendix E - Creative Management

Appendix F - Personnel Management

Appendix G - Equal Opportunity Employment and Affirmative Action

Appendix H - Financial Management

Appendix I - Curricular Design: An Annotated Bibliography

MAKING ARRANGEMENTS FOR THE WORKSHOP

The following are the main items which generally need attention when preparing for a workshop. They will each be discussed, in turn.

1. Budget
2. Dates
3. Workshop Leaders
4. Workshop Staff
5. Promotion
6. Meeting Facilities
7. Food and Refreshments
8. Travel
9. Accomodations for Staff and Participants
10. Equipment Provided On Site
11. Equipment and Materials Which Need to Be Brought to the Site

12. Services Which Need to Be Rendered On Site

13. Advance Materials for Participants

Budgeting can usually not be finalized until the needs of the participants have been assessed, the goals specified, and the strategies and formats selected. It is generally best to begin by determining the costs of conducting an optimally effective workshop. If the costs are found to be excessive, a decision can then be made to modify or eliminate aspects of the original plan in ways which will be minimally disruptive to fulfilling the workshop goals. Compromises can usually be made in the level of elegance of the accomodations and refreshments, without impinging on the substantive value of the experience.

Funds for workshops can be generated from a number of sources; including tuition fees from the participants, contributions from the training program in which the participants work, and grants from foundations or from state or federal government.

Dates for the workshop need to be set well in advance. The availability of potential partipants, leaders and adequate meeting space need to be considered in setting the time for when the wortkshop will be held. It is also important to make certain that the dates are not in competition with other important events.

Workshop Leaders need to be selected as early as possible, so they can be centrally involved in all of the planning. The most effective consultants usually have busy calendars and need to be contacted far in advance of the workshop. Care needs to be taken to assure that optimally appropriate leaders are selected. If learning

is to be intense and meaningful, it is generally best to have one leader for every 8 workshop participants. For highly interactive experiences, it tends to be best to limit the total number of participants to about 30 people; although many more could be accomodated if most of the activities are conducted in sub-groups. If there are large numbers of people who want to attend the workshop, it might be best to hold 2 workshops instead of one.

The expectations for the leaders and other details need to be specified and settled, in advance. This can often involve the use of a written contract, although such a formality may not be necessary between people who know each other or who have worked together before. Whether written or not, prior agreement should be reached on: the dates; the amount of time expected from the consultant - before, during and after the workshop; the equipment and materials, if any, which the sponsoring group will supply; travel and room accomodations; the consulting fee; the per diem; and the travel allowance.

Staff members, in addition to the workshop leaders, are generally needed to assure the success of workshops. The staff can attend to participant registration, meal and refreshment arrangements, and other important house-keeping details, which can be critical to the overall quality of the experience, but which the leaders, who are caught up in instructional tasks, are usually too busy to monitor.

Promotion of the workshop is almost always necessary, although the kind and amount needed will depend on the nature of the particular workshop being planned. Even if the workshop is an in-house event, and even if there is a "captive" audience, it is generally desirable to build interest in advance. If holding the

workshop is dependent on finding people who are willing to pay the tuition, more extensive promotion will clearly be in order.

The meeting facility to be selected will be affected by several considerations, as follows:

- accessibility to participants,
- costs which are appropriate for the workshop budget,
- accessibility to restaurants and entertainment, if participants are from out of town,
- adequate space for the number of participants and the activities planned,
- space which is well ventilated and at a comfortable temperature,
- space with enough light for the activities planned (for example, videotaping requires more light than many meeting rooms have available),
- facilities which can provide needed services (e.g., such as food service and/or technical help, as with videotaping),
- freedom for noise and other distractions, and
- furniture suitable to the activities (e.g., comfortable, movable chairs).

Refreshments, provided during regular breaks (at least once during each half day) are a must. Some groups like to provide a model of healthy self-care by serving juices and fresh fruit, rather than, or in addition to, the more common sweet rolls and soft drinks. Many participants are accustomed to having coffee or tea available on a fairly continuous basis during their work day, and are helped to remain alert by these beverages being provided at the workshop.

Meals may or may not be provided on an organized basis, depending on the nature of the group and the goals of the meeting. People sometimes welcome having a lunch provided, to save the time lost in going to regular restaurants, but they often appreciate the opportunity to explore places according to their individual tastes for their evening meal.

Travel and local transportation need to be considered when selecting the meeting site and when considering the places of origin of the participants. If a group is holding a workshop out of their institution, but in the same town, arrangements are usually made for car pools or for mass transport. When participants are traveling from out of town, funds can be saved by arranging for joint land transportation

Sleeping accomodations can range from modest to luxurious, depending on the financial circumstances of the participants and the amount of time being spent. At the very least, it is important to assure that clean and quiet accomodations are provided. Typically, there is little or no difference in the room costs for singles or doubles. Providing help in finding room-mates for those for whom funds are tight can enable significant reductions in the costs of participation in an out of town meeting.

Equipment needs at a workshop can be substantial. Many motels, hotels, and centers where conferences are frequently held can provide such equipment as flip charts, film projectors, screens and overhead projectors. Some also have video equipment, or, at least, have a rental center which they use and can recommend.

The kinds of equipment and materials which need to be brought to

the workshop site usually include:

- workbooks for the participants,
- handouts for the participants,
- name tags,
- masking tape for mounting material written on flip charts,
- marking pens for flip charts (just in case the facility is out of them),
- a knife for opening stubborn boxes,
- pencils and pens for participants who have forgotten theirs, and
- safety pins, for emergencies.

The services to be provided by the meeting facility, the schedule of those services and their costs all need to be worked and confirmed in writing, well in advance of workshop. Among the services which are generally needed are meeting rooms, meals, refreshments, equipment, supplies, clean-up, and rearrangement of meeting room furniture for different activities at different times.

Once the workshop participants have been identified, it is helpful to provide them with some of the details of the workshop, particularly any ways in which they need to prepare for the tasks in which they will engage. If they are expected to do some things in advance, it is critical that they understand what they are, and that they agree to do them.

CONDUCTING AND EVALUATING THE WORKSHOP

CREATING A COMFORTABLE ENVIRONMENT

Assuring the comfort of the participants requires attention to several details during the hours immediately prior to the start of the workshop. The arrangement of the meeting room furniture can have a substantial impact on the quality and character of the communication process. There are numerous ways in which chairs can be arranged: in rows (school room style); in a semi-circle; in a circle; in concentric circles; with or without tables, and more. Meeting facility staff will typically set rooms up in the more familiar classroom style, sometimes even when explicitly asked to set the chairs in a circle.

The arrangement of the chairs conveys to participants a rather specific message about the kind of event the workshop will be. If the chairs are in school room style, or in another manner where everyone is facing forward, presumably toward the leader, the message is: this will be a leader-run workshop. As in most classrooms, there will one person who is assumed to have most or all of the worthy things that will be said, and most everybody else is assumed to have little of merit to contribute. Further, the leader will be active and the participants passive.

When chairs are arranged in a circle or semi-circle, so that everyone can see each other, the message is that this will likely be a workshop run in a collaborative rather than in an authoritarian manner. Both the leader and the participants will be active in the

teaching-learning process. The participants will be seen as having something to offer to each other and to the leaders.

Clearly, a leader who has set the chairs up in a circle can still control the group in an authoritarian manner, and collaborative meetings can occur in stiff, front-facing rooms,although these variations seldom occur. Usually, the process reflects the structure, and vice versa.

When people are not facing each other, it is difficult to talk with one another. Conversely, when they are in a circle, it is more difficult for a leader to give nonstop, one-way presentations or to ignore signs of restlessness among participants who have contributions to offer. There are many ways in which a leader shapes the events of a workshop. Some of these ways are the product of attention to physical considerations in the meeting space; some are involve care with other details, as noted below.

One small consideration which can have a tangible effect is the use and design of name tags. Most name tags, when used at all, are typed in small letters, often including the person's full name and institutional affiliation. Most such tags are illegible from more than a two foot distance, even for the youngest participants. An alternative approach involves designing the tag to include only, or mainly, the person's first name, written in letters which are large enough to be read from across the room. Such tags tend to: reduce barriers - promote a sense of equality - among participants (people are known by their first names rather than by their degrees or titles); facilitate the process of getting acquainted; and enable the workshop leaders and others to personalize their interactions, by

being able to refer to people by their names.

Before people begin arriving, careful checks need to be made to assure that all the required equipment is there and functioning properly, and that handouts and other instructional materials are readily available. Having to fumble around with non-operative equipment during the workshop can be annoying, embarassing and counter-productive to the goals of the workshop - both in the distractions imposed and in providing a negative model of the level of planning and care which effective teaching and effective administration require.

CREATING A CLIMATE OF TRUST

Just as clinicians must take explicit steps to create a climate of trust, so that their patients will be comfortable revealing their concerns, so, too, workshop leaders need to foster an environment in which people feel free to talk reasonably openly about their relevant areas of strength as well as those areas on which they feel they need to work. A step toward this goal involves being available and individually greeting people when they first arrive. This implies that one has allowed sufficient time to dispose of all equipment, materials and space considerations in advance.

Refreshments tend to help put people at ease. As they enter the meeting room, generally a few at a time, it can be helpful to have some food (dessert) and beverage (coffee), around which they can begin to congregate and become acquainted. In fact, chairs can be arranged in small clusters so as to facilitate this process.

Participants usually appreciate receiving a workbook which

includes, at the least, the workshop goals, the schedule, the names and addresses of the staff and participants, workshop exercises, a bibliography and some plain paper for notes. Any people who are not fully comfortable raising questions publicly at the outset can read through the workbook as a way of getting an overview of what is going to happen.

The opening moments can be critical in establishing the climate and shaping the tone of the workshop. If the leaders can begin by providing an immediate model of comfort, good humor, and a willingness to take some risks (such as revealing their own vulnerability), they will have taken great strides in making it likely that the participants will move quickly toward exhibiting these characteristics.

People usually do not hear much of what is said to them at the opening of the workshop. If anything crucial is said, it probably should be repeated later. The opening is best used as a time for introductions, a brief orientation, and for some casual conversation. The leaders can help set the stage by introducing themselves in the ways they would like the participants to do their self-introductions - in terms of length, areas of focus, informality and some self-effacement It can be a nice touch to provide space in the workbook (on the participant and faculty list) for participants to take notes on interesting information they hear about the people at the meeting.

There are a number of different ways people can be asked to introduce themselves, such as by: --their expectations for their workshop; --their major responsibilities as administrators; --the

workshop project on which they plan to work; --contributions they feel they can make, on the basis of special experiences they have had; and --areas in which they would like to learn from the experiences of others.

By listening carefully and critically during the introductions, the leaders can gain an improved understanding of the needs and strengths of the group members (hopefully, the leaders have already gathered information from a needs assessment), and the participants can begin to get some ideas about which people and programs they would like more information. The particular form the introductions will take will need to be based on such matters as: --how well people already know each other; --how many people are in the workshop; --the nature of the workshop (e.g., whether current and future collaboration between participants is desired or not); and --the time constraints.

EXAMINING AND REFINING THE GOALS AND STRATEGIES

The goals and strategies of the workshop, as previously noted, need to be formulated, or at least drafted, prior to the workshop. In many cases this will have to have been done by indirect, rather than direct, input from the participants; as through a written questionnaire, rather than from face-to-face discussions. Under such circumstances, it is unlikely that the initial set of goal will be fully on target.

Sharing the proposed goals and strategies of the workshop, and inviting the participants to reflect on and discuss them, can be important steps toward fulfilling two important workshop tasks: 1)

helping participants gain a sense of ownership of the workshop, and 2) modeling the kind of collaborative approach to decision-making which can be useful for educational administrators to emulate in their own work. Although it is generally not possible to revamp the workshop entirely (even when that seems advisable), there are often steps that can be taken which will increase the likelihood that the goals and strategies will meet the needs of the group as effectively as possible, within the existing constraints. One such step involves leaving some unscheduled time toward the end of the workshop, during which the group members can pursue activities based on their own plans and preferences.

FOSTERING COLLABORATION

Having representative workshop participants meet with the workshop leaders prior to the workshop to help formulate the goals and strategies is a particularly effective approach to fostering the practice of, and an appreciation for, a collaborative approach to education and administration. If this is not possible before the workshop, then, as just noted, participants can help refine the goals and strategies during the workshop.

All of the procedural suggestions offered above - for arranging the furniture, preparing the name tags and making introductions - can also help foster a sense of collaboration. Workshop leaders can facilitate the process further by taking such steps as: --responding supportively to group members who volutarily offer suggestions; --turning questions back to the group, rather than answering them themselves (at least initially); --selecting activities which give

participants maximum opportunities to be active in their own learning and to help each other; --inviting people to contribute their ideas and recommendations throughout the workshop; and explicitly drawing attention to, and discussing, the collaborative approach, emphasizing the rationale for its use.

EVALUATING THE WORKSHOP

Workshop evaluations often consist only, or mainly, of end-of-workshop questionnaires, given to the workshop participants to complete in the closing moments of their time together. Usually, the participants are asked to indicate the extent to which they were satisfied or dissatisfied with various segments and features of the workshop. When the workshop faculty tally the data from these questionnaires it is too late to make any changes. The data, however, if based on appropriate questions, can be helpful in planning future workshops.

An alternative approach involves establishing a climate in which the participants feel free to offer critiques throughout the workshop, so that necessary and appropriate changes can be made then and there. To pursue this approach, workshop leaders can let the participants know, from the opening moments of the workshop, that their critiques are not only acceptable but are necessary.

This alternative approach can involve an explanation that a continuing willingness by the participants to offer their assessments of the proceedings will serve a double purpose: 1) important information will thereby be made available, which can help enhance the quality of the experience for everyone; and 2) the very skills the participants are there to acquire depend upon their practicing the process of helping bring about improvements in educational experiences. The act of critiquing the workshop is an important step in becoming more effective in critiquing the progams for which they are responsible.

The participants can, indeed they should, use the workshop as a case in point of an instructional program which they can practice reflecting on and trying to improve. Still further, their participation in the ongoing monitoring of the effectiveness of the workshop provides them with an explicit example of joining in a shared responsibility - of being collabative - which can help them develop a sense of what their students and colleagues may appreciate as an approach in their home settings.

During, and at the close of, most of the main workshop activities, a few moments can be taken for sharing reflections on the workshop process and progress. A tool which can help the participants in their reflecting on the workshop process is an evaluation log. This is a form in which the participants are asked to make entries throughout the workshop. Some important issues to include on such a form are:

- the ways in which participants feel the workshop faculty are facilitating and/or blocking their learning;
- the ways in which participants feel their peers are facilitating and/or blocking their learning;
- the ways in which individual participants feel they are facilitating and/or blocking their own learning.

Figure 15 provides the questions that participants in the workshops in educational administration for PA faculty and administrators were asked to complete in their evaluation logs. This form uses all open-ended questions. If more specific information is needed, more specific questions, or even multiple choice questions, could be included. Faculty members can collect the logs at the end

Figure 15

WORKSHOP AND SELF-EVALUATION

1) Issues, principles, strategies discussed/implemented at the workshop I want to explore more fully.

2) Issues, principles, strategies discussed/implemented at the workshop I want to try out in my teaching.

3) Feedback and suggestions about my teaching that were helpful to me.

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Figure 15 (cont.)

4) Ways in which the staff facilitated and/or blocked my learning.

5) Ways in which I facilitated and/or blocked my learning.

6) Ways in which other participants facilitated and/or blocked my learning.

7) Any other comments?

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of the workshop and, after summarizing the information, return the logs to the participants for their own further reflections and possible future use.

Another technique for evaluating the workshop, while it is taking place, is the "fishbowl" exercise. At the end of each day, the workshop leaders sit together and undertake their own critique of that day's events. Workshop participants are invited to observe the workshop leaders' self-critique session. Once the leaders have had an opportunity to discuss some issues among themselves, the participants are asked to offer their comments, suggestions and reactions. This approach can also serve a double purpose. It can secure further helpful information from the participants, on the basis of their being prompted to think of additional issues by the leaders' reflections. It can also provide a useful model of teachers who are effectively self-critical and open with their students about their own difficulties - which the participants may then replicate in their own work.

If it is important to measure the extent to which participants acquire certain capabilities and/or attitudes at the workshop, pre- and post tests can be offered. The more subtle and/or complex the competencies and attitudes which are being sought, however, the more difficult it is to measure whatever changes may be occuring. Measuring the extent to which participants master a new budgeting system during the workshop, for example, is much easier than measuring the extent to which participants learn (incorporate) new ways of, say, relating to staff members.

An important test of the effectiveness of a workshop often is

the extent to which participants put new learnings into practice in their own settings or make new skills part of their permanent repertoires. Measuring these long-term outcomes is generally very expensive, although very desirable.

CONCLUSIONS

This document is meant as a general resource for persons who are responsible for planning and implementing workshops in educational administration for administrators and faculty members in PA programs. Some guidelines and principles have been suggested, and some instructional exercises and sample materials have been provided. It must be reemphasized, however, that one does not become an effective designer and implementer of workshops from reviewing a written document, any more than one can become a competent clinician from reading a book. This resource can do little more that help enlarge the perspectives of educators who have already had some experience conducting workshops, or suggest some questions which should be raised by administrators who are turning to educators to possible serve as workshop directors for their programs. If this material succeeds in achieving these limited purposes, we will be most gratified. If more detailed information on these matters is wanted, the reader is invited to contact the authors directly.

APPENDIX A

PROJECT STAFF

Name, Institution	Position
Jane Westberg, Ph.D. National Center for Faculty Development University of Miami Miami, Florida	Project Director
Hilliard Jason, M.D., Ed.D. NCFD	Assoc. Project Director
James Hughes Administrator Association of Physician Assistant Programs Arlington, Virginia	Administrator
Mary Teed Administrative Assistant NCFD	Secretary

Workshop Faculty and Staff

Name, Institution	Position
Jane Westberg, Ph.D. - NCFD	Faculty
Hilliard Jason, M.D., Ed.D. - NCFD	Faculty
Thomas Earle Bowen Jr., Ph.D. Vice Chancellor or Administration University of Tennessee Center for Health Sciences Memphis, Tennessee	Faculty Workshops 1,2,&4
R. Dale LeFever, Ph.D. Director of Education Department of Family Medicine University of Michigan Ann Arbor, Michigan	Faculty Workshop 2

APPENDIX B

ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Samuel Baskin, Ph.D.
Founding President
Union Graduate School
Cincinnati, Ohio

Thomas Earle Bowen, Jr. Ph.D.
Vice Chancellor for Administration
University of Tennessee
Center for Health Sciences
Memphis, Tennessee

David Glazer
Executive Director
National Commission on Certification of PAs
Atlanta, Georgia

Thomas Godkins, PA
Past President, APAP
Physician Associate Program
University of Oklahoma
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

Archie Golden, M.D., M.P.H.
Past President, APAP
Baltimore City Hospital
Baltimore, Maryland

Karl Katterjohn
APAP Principle Investigator
George Washington University
Washington D.C.

Yvonne Theodore
Assistant Director of Personnel
The Johns Hopkins University
Baltimore, Maryland

Margaret Wilson, Ph.D. - Project Officer
Division of Medicine
Department of Health and Human Services
Hyattsville, Maryland

Jane Westberg, Ph.D. - Project Director
National Center for Faculty Development

Hilliard Jason, M.D., Ed.D. - Associate Project Director
National Center for Faculty Development

APPENDIX C

WORKSHOP PARTICIPANTS

CENTRAL REGION - June 22-25, 1980 - St. Louis, MO

Cuyahoga Community College Physicians Assisting Program Parma, OH	Richard Nystrom, PhD Richard Salladin, PA-C
Duke University Medical Center Physician's Associate Program Durham, NC	Reginald Carter, PhD, PA-C Susan Edgman, PA-C Michael Hamilton, MD
University of Iowa Physician's Assistant Program Iowa City, IA	Gary Johnson, PA-C
University of Kentucky Clinical Associate Program Lexington, KY	Glen Combs, PA-C Gerry Gairola, PhD
Mercy College of Detroit Physician's Assistant Program Detroit, MI	Harriet Gales, MA Ron Dobrzynski, BS, PA-C
Wichita State University Physician's Assistant Program Wichita, KS	William Religo, PA-C
St. Louis University Physician Assistant Program St. Louis, MO	Richard Rode, PA-C
University of North Dakota Family Nurse Practitioner Program Grand Forks, ND	Robert Olson, PA-C Bonnie Bata, RN, PA-C, FNP-C
University of Oklahoma Hth Sci Ctr Physician's Associate Program Oklahoma City, OK	Donald Beaver, PA-C Paula Montgomery, PA-C
University of Texas - Galveston Physician's Assistant Program Galveston, TX	Tricia Stoltz, PA-C Shirley Werner, PA-C
Western Michigan University Physician's Assistant Program Kalamazoo, MI	Dorothy Soteriou James Hammond, PA-C

APPENDIX C

WORKSHOP PARTICIPANTS

EASTERN REGION - July 20-23, 1980 - Philadelphia, PA

Albany Medical College Physician's Assistant Program Albany, NY	Leonard Nyland, RPA-C Karen Sadler-Sparks, RPA-C Wayne Cure, RPA-C
City College of New York Physician Assistant Program New York, NY	Albert Prohaska, PhD
Hahnemann Medical College Physician's Assistant Program Philadelphia, PA	Evelyn Major, MBA Sherry Stolberg, PA-C
Pennsylvania State University Physician Assistant Program Hershey, PA	Rugh Henderson, MD Steve Camhi, PA-C
St. Francis College Physician Assistant Program Loretto, PA	Mel Lytle, PA-C Paul Moson, PA-C
Long Island University Physician's Assistant Program Brooklyn, NY	Tina Reiter, RPA-C Maureen Sullivan, WHCS
Essex Community College Physician's Assistant Program Baltimore, MD	Robert J. Solomon, MS, PA-C
King's College Physician Assistant Program Wilkes-Barre, PA	Eleanor Babonis, RN, PA-C
Rutger's College of Med & Dent Physician Assistant Program Piscataway, NJ	Ruth Fixelle, BSN Ronda Stephens
State University of New York - Stony Brook Physician Assistant Program Long Island, NY	Lucille Messier, RPA-C Nanci Rice, RPA-C
Touro College Physician Assistant Program New York, NY	Edward Williams, PA-C
Yale University Physician Associate Program New Haven, CT	Elaine Grant, PA-C

APPENDIX C

WORKSHOP PARTICIPANTS

SOUTHERN REGION - October 19-22, 1980 - Atlanta, GA

University of Alabama - Birmingham Surgeon's Assistant Program Birmingham, AL	Jacqueline Hall, SA Dorothy Gauthier, PhD
Emory University School of Medicine Physician Associate Program Atlanta, GA	Betty Bernhart, PA-C Ann Flewelling, BSN
George Washington University Physician Assistant Program Washington, DC	Linda Davies, RN, PA-C
Medical College of Georgia Physician Associate Program Augusta, GA	James Estep, MEd Glenn Lafitte, PA-C
St. Francis College Physician Assistant Program Loretto, PA	Ron Bergie, PA-C
Alderson-Broaddus College Physician's Assistant Program Philippi, WV	Paul Bennett, EdD Jane Hubbs, PA-C
University of Florida College of Medicine Physician Assistant Program Gainesville, FL	Richard Wilkes, PA-C James Konopa, PA-C
Howard University Physician Assistant Program Washington, DC	Edward Beasley, MA Jean Gary-Williams, RPT, MA
University of Nebraska College of Medicine Physician Assistant Program Omaha, NE	James Somers, PA-C Timothy Frary, PA-C
Wake Forest University Physician Assistant Program Winston-Salem, NC	Jimmie L. Pharris, PhD John C. Muller, MD

APPENDIX C

WORKSHOP PARTICIPANTS

WESTERN REGION - December 10-13, 1980 - Los Angeles, CA

University of California - Davis Family Nurse Practitioner/PA Program Davis, CA	Elaine Chaykin, FNP Joann Trolinger, FNP
Drew Postgraduate Medical School Physician's Assistant Program Los Angeles, CA	Florence Moore Mollie Robinson, PA Wendell Wharton, PA
Mercy College of Detroit Physician's Assistant Program Detroit, MI	Robert Ibbetson, PA-C
University of Southern California Primary Care PA Program Los Angeles, CA	Marty Dreskin, EdD Ashutosh Roy, MD
Stanford University Primary Care Associate Program Palo Alto, CA	Rom Romero Laurel Sherry-Armstrong, PA-C
University of Utah MEDEX Program Salt Lake City, UT	Donald Pederson, PA-C
University of Colorado Child Health Associate Program Denver, CO	Marianne Neifert, MD Virginia Moore, MD
Gallup Indian Medical Center Community Health Medic Program Gallup, NM	Ethel Kayate, PA-C Joseph Whitaker, MD
Northeastern University Physician's Assistant Program Boston, MA	Suzanne Greenberg, MS Richard Nicklas, PA-C
St. Louis University Physician Assistant Program St. Louis, MO	Laura Stuetzer, PA-C David Wagner, PA-C
The University of Texas - Dallas Physician Assistant Program Dallas, TX	Nancy Alexander, MA Ron Dickinson, PA-C
University of Washington MEDEX Northwest Seattle, WA	Andrew Penman, MD Henry Stoll, PA-C

APPENDIX D

WORKSHOP GOALS

This workshop is meant to provide opportunities for you:

-- to design a plan of action for a "workshop project" to be implemented at your own institution, and to receive constructive feedback and suggestions on this plan from faculty and colleagues;

-- to discuss and practice utilizing various strategies for addressing administrative/instructional problems which you and your colleagues identified in the needs assessment (e.g., problems with students, faculty, and preceptors);

-- to enhance your skills and understandings in curriculum development (e.g., instructional design; the evaluation of student performance, teaching and programs), personnel management, financial management, equal employment opportunity and affirmative action, through your workshop project and/or other activities.

APPENDIX E

CREATIVE MANAGEMENT

by T. Earle Bowen, Ph.D.

Management, in its simplest terms, is the accomplishment of planned objectives through others, within the resources available and the time constraints of the situation. To do this requires effective planning, including - identifying those who can and will get the job done and evaluating what is done and how it is done, in terms of the objectives of the program. With the already scarce resources becoming even more scare in the 1980's, educational administrators in physician assistant training programs are faced with a considerable challenge. In some cases, even the very survival of programs is at stake. Following are some ideas which, hopefully, will be useful to those who are charged with managing PA programs in the 1980's.

I. INCREASE AVAILABLE RESOURCES

A. Creatively mix existing resources. A fundamental assumption in management is that creatively mixing scarce resources (e.g., manpower, materials, methods, money and machines) can result in new capabilities as well as savings. For example, if a program is finding it too expensive to provide each faculty member with his or her own secretary, adequate clerical services can still be maintained by pooling the

secretaries (having faculty share a group of secretaries) or by having one secretary, whose efficiency and productivity is enhanced and extended by his or her use of a microcomputer, provide clerical services to a group of faculty.

B. Develop new sources of funding. It is becoming clear that federal funds, which have been a major source of support for many PA programs, will be greatly diminished in the future. Many programs are already turning to the state, their host institution, granting agencies and foundations, for funding. In addition it can be useful to consider the kinds of services PA programs can offer in return for fees and/or services. For example, patient care services might be provided on a fee-for-service basis, or such services might be offered "in trade" (in exchange) for services needed by the PA program, like the supervision of students in clinical settings.

C. Concentrate resources on high priority objectives. One way to increase the effectiveness of a program is by identifying, assessing and ranking the objectives of the program and then developing a strategy for concentrating the necessary resources on doing the high priority tasks as well as possible. If a program decides, for instance, that a number one priority is helping PA students become effective interviewers, the program may decide to focus its resources (teachers, energy, time, funds and equipment) on developing a high quality program for the teaching of interviewing.

II. RENEGOTIATE EXPECTATIONS

A. Eliminate non-essential services. Programs faced with scarce resources may need to assess the services they provide in terms of their costs and their benefits. A recreational program for students, which was developed at a time when the program did not have funding worries, might have to be reconsidered, and even eliminated, if the costs of that services appear to be greater than the benefit.

B. "Partition the market". PA programs, like many other service organizations, often define their "client system" (the persons they serve) as being virtually unlimited. Put another way, some programs try to be all things to all people. The result can be an program which is struggling to be a cottage industry or a custom service for a variety of groups. PA programs, which do not want to be, or become, overextended might want to focus only on specific, well delineated groups of "clients". A program might decide to accept and work with students who want to become equipped to provide primary care in underserved areas, as opposed to accepting a variety of students who want programs to prepare them to provide many different kinds of care.

C. (Re)Prioritize the services rendered. Programs which want to make the most effective use possible of their existing

resources can work with their "clients" (e.g. their students or faculty) in deciding which services are most needed and in what order. Collaborating with students and faculty in this way can help prevent problems created by conflicting demands.

D. Practice zero based budgeting. Some programs do their budgeting on an "historical" basis. That is, every year they increase their budget by a given percentages, regardless of external circumstances. With "zero based budgeting", the slate is wiped clean each year (or whenever else this might be necessary), and the budget is created anew, based on the programs' objectives and resources and on existing or anticipated resources.

E. Be realistic about what services can be rendered. Service organizations, as opposed to industries, tend to be unrealistic about the costs of the services they render. Teachers and health professionals are notoriously indifferent, even disdainful, about such details. Consequently, service organizations tend to accept new responsibilities without stopping to consider whether there are adequate resources for meeting the new need. Too often new responsibilities do not bring new resources, so existing resources are stretched beyond appropriate limits. Just as industry is aware of the costs involved in creating their products, so too training programs need to be cognizant of their costs.

III. CONSERVE

A. Cut costs. Costs can be cut in a variety of ways, like by: carefully monitoring purchases, buying only what is needed, buying the right product at the right price, making certain that various employee benefits are appropriate and so on. Costs can also be cut by seeking out ways to work collaboratively with other administrative support areas, for example, by purchasing clerical and filing services from another department or central support support area, rather than incuring the liability for the personnel, equipment and space in one's own program.

B. Avoid costs. There are a number of strategies for avoiding costs, like: buying equipment before it becomes more costly, buying in bulk, and engaging in collaborative purchasing.

C. Maintain and upgrade existing resources. At the present time, many industries in the United States are suffering because over the years they did not put capital back into maintaining and enhancing their human and technological resources. Some companies now find that their equipment is so obsolete and/or in such poor condition that they can no longer compete effectively on the market place. Many Japanese industries, on the other hand, have continuously invested in their technological and human resources, and, consequently, are in a far more competitive position than their U.S. counterparts. PA programs also need to

care for and invest in their technological and human resources, including their staff members and teachers. Sometimes these investments need to be seen in terms of their potential long-term, rather than short-term, benefits.

IV. INCREASE PRODUCTIVITY

A. Reduce the work force. In most service organizations, such as PA programs, the most expensive fixed item, in terms both of direct and indirect costs, is labor. A program's output per dollar value can often be improved through such tactics as, eliminating unfilled positions, having one very competent person assume responsibility for tasks previously handled ineffectively by two lesser skilled persons, and hiring part-time staff during periods of need, rather than keeping staff on a full-time basis when their services are not continuously needed.

B. Redesign jobs to increase job satisfaction and/or monetary compensation. In general, people are more effective when they can have some personal control over meaningful units of work. Redesigning jobs into meaningful units and giving people more control over what they do can increase their productivity.

C. Focus more on performance outcomes. Most administrators or managers use a personnel evaluation system which focuses on

traits or activities without proper attention to the outcomes that are expected. Research shows, however, that employees are more effective and productive when (1) mutual and clearly defined outcomes have been specificed for their particular jobs --when they know what they are expected to do, and when (2) they receive regular, constructive feedback on their progress which enable them to make any changes which are needed for the successful accomplishment of the goals.

D. Broaden and share the information base. If PA programs are to adapt to changes with a minimum of internal resistance and maximum efficiency, there must be adequate lead time and staff members, faculty, and, to some extent, students must have a sense of the bigger picture, a vision on the future. Effective planning is dependent upon access to a comprehensive, up-to-date information system. At regular intervals this information is shared, with particular attention being given to its implications for the future. Opportunities are provided for administrators, staff and faculty to engage in periodic contingency planning and "what if" brain-storming sessions.

V. DISCONTINUE THE PROGRAM

This is the final step. It is the last ditch effort. If there is a movement from scarce resources to no resources at all, then a program must be discontinued. While this is a very obvious statement, many people insist that their programs should be alive, even though there are no

resources to support them.

A. Forecast the future. Management or administrative processes begin with information. Part of the information includes a picture of how the future may look. It can be useful to attempt to forecast the future, using all available information. Information comes in a variety of ways and forms, including reports directed to others. National trends, state or local trends in funding are all important sources. No fiscal period should be approached without a forecast for the future, such as a two, three, or five year plan.

B. Have a plan. It is important not to be at the mercy of others, with no control over one's destiny. Therefore, it is incumbent on a PA program to have a plan for its future, even if that includes how it will discontinue its operations in the event of a funding fallout. Program's have an obligation to staff members, faculty and students. Therefore, plans need to be made as to what will happen in the event it becomes necessarily to greatly reduce or entirely close down the program. Planning might include cooperative efforts with other PA programs, including the relocation of people and activities.

C. Have a place to go. Strategies for survival include having a place to go, if this becomes necessary. Maintaining an awareness of career opportunities and job opening --of options-- can reduce anxiety and allow people to focus maximal attention on survival efforts.

APPENDIX F

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

Most physician assistant training programs operate with relatively small staffs, often consisting of a medical director (who is not always paid by the program), a program director, a secretary or two, and a few people with a variety of titles, such as clinical coordinator, academic coordinator, or educational coordinator. This latter group, as their titles imply, generally are responsible for coordinating some phase of the teaching program, usually either the classroom-based, academic program or the clinical program, which usually includes clerkships in a variety of specialties and/or a preceptorship. In addition to the types of positions just mentioned, larger programs may also have staff members with titles like: associate director, assistant director, evaluator, administrative assistant, program assistant and clerical coordinator.

Most of the educational coordinators, who attended the Workshops in Educational Administration described their core staff as hard working. In fact, one of the major issues appears to be the fact that many staff members work too hard. The turnover of staff, particularly among clinical coordinators, is high. A frequent reason given for this is "burnout". In many cases, it appears that conscientious staff members are attempting to do work, which deserves to be divided with at least one other individual. However, even though many administrators are aware of the need for more staff members, this is often not economically possible.

Educational administrators in PA programs are faced with some

difficult challenges in personnel management. The greatest challenges seem to come, though, not from the persons on their own staff, but rather from the many people, who are not on their staff, but are key to the successful operation of the training program. These people include both the clinicians, particularly physicians, who supervise PA students during the clerkships and preceptorships, and the basic scientists and others who participate in the classroom teaching. Clearly, the principles and strategies of personnel managements which are useful in working with employed personel are not always applicable when working with people, who, not only are not employed by the program. but may be receiving nothing in the way of financial compensation.

The following bibliography provides some suggested references on various aspects of personnel management: employee selection, employee compensation, performance evaluation, discipline, greviences and reporting services for arbitration decisions. This bibliography was provided by R. Dale Lefever, Ph.D. Appendix G, which deals with equal employment opportunity and affirmative action, is also pertinent.

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APPENDIX G

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION
AND
EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY

contributed by

R. D. Lefever and T. E. Bowen

Physician Assistant Programs, like all other organizations, need to adhere to the laws regarding affirmative action and equal employment opportunity. In most cases, the best way to assure such compliance is for educational administrators in PA programs to work through their institution's personnel officers when hiring, promoting or terminating employees.

Affirmative Action Plans are generated by organizations to respond to and address the specific obligations they must undertake in order to comply with the following laws and regulations:

1. The Equal Pay Act of 1963,
2. Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as amended,
3. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964,
4. Executive Order No. 11246 of September, 1965,
5. Executive Order No. 11375 of 1967,
6. Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967,
7. U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Federal Contract Compliance, Revised Order 34, December, 1971,
8. The Rehabilitation Act of 1973,

9. The Vietnam Era Veterans Rehabilitation Act of 1974,

10. Executive Order No. 12086 of October 5, 1978,

11. Federal Registrar, Part IV, Friday, October 20, 1978.

It is the intenion of Affirmative Action to increase the number of "affected classes" which are now employed. Affirmative action plans are the statements of actions to be taken to employ, and to advance in employment, qualified disabled veterans and veterans of the Vietnam Era as well as other affected classes, currently defined as blacks, women, hispanic sur-named individuals, as well as certain local minorities, e.g., Indians in the Northwestern United States. The plans state that action will be take to ensure that applicants are employed and that employees are treated during employment without regard to race, color, religion, sex, national origin, age, handicap, or to status as a veteran or disabled veteran of the Vietnam era. Such actions include employment, upgrading, demotion, transfer, recruitment, lay-off or termination, rates of pay or other forms of compensation and selection of training.

Affirmative Action does not intend that unqualified persons be hired or promoted. However, the burden on the manager and the organization is to show cause for an individual not being qualified for a position. Minimum qualifications for employment are important and must be consistent with the job requirements.

The Equal Opportunity Act intends that individuals will have equal opportunities to employment regardless of race, color, religion, sex, national orgin, age, handicap, or status as a disabled veteran. The intent is obvious - all persons should have equal access to employment.

Several challenges face the educational administrator, including - how to create and implement an affirmative action plan while maintaining

equal opportunity compliance, and - how to handle the detailed data that must be recorded and maintained concerning recruitment, interviews, hiring, promotions, training, lay-offs, terminations and all other personnel procedures. Information about the program's affirmative action plan must be published and disseminated both internally and externally. All employees must be informed of the policy and the procedures; all superviors must understand and implement the procedures.

Following are some ways to minimize bias and EEO charges in hiring:

DO NOT ask a job applicant about:

-- race, national origin, religion or age;

-- marital and family status, including child-care problems;

-- contraceptive practices;

-- plans to have children;

-- height or weight (unless this information is job related);

-- friends or relatives working in your organization;

-- the applicant's credit rating or other financial data.

DO NOT base your hiring decisions on:

-- race or color;

-- religion (unless it is a bona fide qualification for the job);

-- national origin (unless it is a bona fide qualification for the job)

-- sex (unless it is is a bona fide qualification for the job, which, according to EEOC, is practically never);

-- arrest records;

-- garnishments records;

-- credit rating;

-- negative report by previous employer (unless applicant has the opportunity to rebut);

-- marital status (unless applied equally to men and women);

-- children in household (unless the same standard applies to men and women).

SOME WAYS TO AVOID HANDICAP DISCRIMINATION

DO NOT refuse to hire a handicapped applicant who is otherwise qualified for the job.

DO NOT automatically disqualify an applicant with a handicap.

DO NOT use rigid physical requirements that would disqualify handicapped applicants, unless they are job related.

DO consider a handicapped applicant in terms of the actual job requirements.

DO evaluate handicapped applicants in terms of accomodations that can be made to enable them to fill the job (e.g. modifications in equipment).

DO see each handicapped applicant as an individual with a unique combination of strengths and weaknesses, and try to match this combination with a job in your program.

DO consider redesigning a job so a handicapped worker can do it.

DO give new handicapped employees close attention at first to see how they are adjusting to the job, and then make job modifications, if necessary.

DO let handicapped subordinates know you expect a full day's work, just as you do from any other employee.

DO consider handicapped employees for promotion, just as you do other employees.

Do take steps to promote acceptance of handicapped employees by the other workers in your program.

APPENDIX H

CONSIDERATIONS IN FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT

by T. Earle Bowen, Ph.D.

Effective financial management is dependent upon matching operations with resources in an accountable and systematic manner. The following are some factors which you may want to consider in carrying out this task.

1. Summary of Program Objectives. Financial planning begins with a summary of the objectives to be accomplished by the program. The goals provide a focus both for the planning and review process.

2. Payback. Payback is the time it will take to recover the cost for an expenditure in the form of benefits to the program. In capital expenditures this is rather easily determined. Estimations are more difficult to make wen dealing with personnel costs, estimations may be more difficult. For example, it can be easier to measure when a micro-computer has paid for itself than when a new secretary, whose costs are ongoing, has succeeded in doing this.

3. Personnel Requirements. Personnel requirements, need to be determined on the basis of the minimum number and types of personnel needed to accomplish the objectives of a particular proposal or the overall program. This must be done, of course, in the context of the quality, quantity, cost and time criteria. Dangers include over

staffing for "peak loads" as well as consistently "peak loading" (overloading) the staff. Both strategies are inefficient and costly, over time. If a new project is being planned, it is sometimes possible to relocate existing personnel, so long as these people are not overextended.

4. Estimated Operating Costs. A realistic estimation needs to be made regarding what operating costs will be incurred when a new activity is operational. This estimation should be a figure which is in addition to the current operating costs. Personnel costs should not be included.

5. Cost of Start-Up. Start-up costs are non-reoccuring costs which are incurred in setting up new activities and projects. These costs could include equipment, training, travel, consultant services and so on.

6. Equipment Requirements. In planning a budget, special attention needs to be paid to equipment needs, such as computers, word processors, and audiovisuals, as well as desks, chairs, file cabinets and other stand office eqipment.

7. Space Requirements. Determinations need to be made as to the amount of space needed to house the program and its activities. In PA programs this usually includes space for office staff, storage and filing, and for teaching.

8. Present vs. Projected Costs. Particularly during a time of inflation, attention needs to be paid to possible increases in such items as fringe benefits, telephone, postage, office supplies, equipment, and services.

9. Cash Flow Analysis. Plans need to be made not only for allocations and expenditures but for income as well. Particularly in programs with multiple sources and kinds of income, like tuition, contracts and grants, this can require a great deal of juggling.

10. Opportunity Cost. Particularly in a time of scare resources, it is important to identify the various methods which potentially can be used to achieve a particular goal, and carefully to weigh the opportunities and costs associated with each method. Issue to examine in doing this include determining which method is most costly in the short-run, and which method is most costly in the long-run.

11. Sunk Cost. "Sunk costs" are those costs which cannot be recovered from a project or operation. For example, a program might have invested $14,000 in a given project and only have $2,000 in equipment to show for its effort. In that instance, there would be $12,000 in sunk costs. In making decision regarding the future of a project, it is important to recognize the sunk costs for what they are. A program, for instance, might have budgeted $20,000 for a project. After spending $14,000 ($12,000 of which are sunk costs), it might become clear that another $13,000 will be needed to complete the task. In making the decision as to whether to commit this addition

$13,000 a number of factors need to be considered. One trap the financial manager, needs to avoid falling into is falsely thinking that the $14,000 is an investment, and that, therefore, there is sufficient justification for investing an additional $13,000.

12. The 80% Rule. In the allocation of resourses, a rule of thumb used by many successful financal managers is to fund only 80 percent of the ideal. Translated to a PA progam, this would mean that if a faculity members decides it will cost $10,000 to set up a new learning center, he or she should initially be granted only $8,000. Managers have found that people frequently underestimate the real costs. Overruns are so common that allowance needs to be made for them.

13. Alternative Considerations and Reasons for Discarding Them. In good finanical management, it is not sufficient to merely provide the justification for accomplishing a goal in a particular way. Rather, it is necessary to also present the valid reasons for disgarding other potential strategies. This comprehensive approach can lead to cost savings, for people, in their haste to solve problems quickly, can focus on one seemingly sensible approach without giving adequate consideration to options, which might, in fact, prove more attractive.

14. Probability of Success of Remaining Within Budget. Before making a final decision on a budget plan, it is advisable to study it and make some predictions regarding the chances of remaining within the budget as drawn. Often when people draw up budgets, there are thinking in

terms of existing factors (e.g. the present cost of travel and per diem) rather than considering changes which might have occurred at the time the project is funded and underway.

15. Probability of Success of Remaining Within Time Parameters. Just as there is a tendency to underestimate how much a project will cost, so too there is a tendency to underestimate how much time it will take. In thinking about the delivery schedule or the proposed time frame, it is important to consider such factors as: other commitments, the amount of time it is likely to take to get materials needed in order to carry out the job, the amount of time it is likely to take to hire needed personnel and so on.

APPENDIX I

CURRICULUM DESIGN

Educational administrators are usually involved in and, in many cases, ultimately responsible for, the "yes or no" decisions within programs, such as whether or not a student can be promoted or graduated; whether or not a staff or faculty member can be promoted; and whether or not the program can or should continue. To make these kinds of decisions, the administrator needs to understand the overall goals and strategies of the program, and he or she must have adequate and accurate information.

To make decisions regarding students, for example, the administrator needs to know --what competencies students are expected to master, at different levels in the program and at the time of graduation. The administrator also needs to know precisely where each student is in the process of mastering the competencies. To make decisions regarding teachers, administrators need to know --what teachers are supposed to accomplish to be promoted (or be recommended for promotion) to the various levels within the system. To make decisions regarding the program, the administrator needs to have information regarding:

-- the goals of the program,

-- the extent to which the goals are relevant to the current needs of society;

--the extent to which the program is currently meeting those goals;

-- the resources (financial and otherwise) needed to fulfill the goals; the extent to which those needed resources are currently available;

and

-- whether it is anticipated that the needed resources will be available in the near and distant future.

The following bibliography is pertinent to the above issues.

Block, J. (Ed.). Mastery Learning, Theory and Practice. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971.

Mastery learning assumes that all, or nearly all, students are capable of learning well, provided that appropriate instructional strategies and adequate time are made available. These strategies rely heavily on the constant flow of feedback information to teacher and learner, which can lead to individualized instruction within the context of ordinary group based instruction. The authors bring together the basic mastery learning ideas and the related research findings. Part I presents a series of selected papers on various aspects of mastery learning. Six chapters by Airasian, Bloom and Carroll discuss the affective consequences of school achievement, models of school learning, implementing an effective strategy for a course, subject or curriculum. Part II contains 49 detailed abstracts of mastery learning research, each of which include the major questions, procedures, and findings. The abstracts are further indexed according to 7 categories of major variables in the master learning model.

Davis, R.H., Alexander, L.T., Yelon, S.L. Learning Systems Design, An Approach to the Improvement of Instruction. New York, McGraw-Hill, 1974.

This is a well organized text to help teachers develop a systematic approach to instruction and acquaint them with instructional principles derived from systems oriented educational psychology. While not focused on the health professions, the principles are meant to apply to a wide range of fields and instructional modes, including the lecture, independent study and instructional technology. The book is designed to enable the reader to participate actively in the learning process in addition to reading about it. Each chapter contains: 1) an outline; 2) a set of objectives; 3) response frames which provide feedback; 4) a post-test. Chapter titles include: an overview of learning system design; recognizing, deriving and writing objectives; types of learning; principles of learning and motivation; learning and teaching of problem-solving; perceptual-motor skills and a systems approach to instruction. The text has been field tested.

Fairfield, R.P. Person-Centered Graduate Education. Buffalo, New York: Prometheus, 1977.

The author has written a scholarly, readable review of external degree programs, giving particular attention to the Union Graduate School, a program with which he has been associated since its inception. The path followed by the self-directed learner in a person-centered program is defined and explored. The author challenges traditional educational models and presents thought-provoking alternatives. Carl Rogers describes the author as "a literate, witty, innovator in education, with the mind of a humanist, the feelings of a warmly caring person, and the soul of a poet".

Ford, C.W., and Morgan, M.K. (Eds.). Teaching in the Health Professions. St. Louis: CV Mosby, 1976.

The editors have compiled a useful resource and reference for instruction in the health professions. Contributions from 32 authors are systematically organized to help the academic planner and faculty member build upon tested principles and practice experiences. Three major premises underly the overall presentation: 1) a systems approach to education substantially improves teaching and, consequently, learning; 2) educators should practice what they preach; 3) close approximation to real problems, dealt with in simulated, laboratory, or clinical settings, are more effective than abstract lectures on theory. The book is divided into four parts: establishing competencies, identifying student characteristics, facilitating learning, and improving assessment. A central theme is the value of competency based instruction within a systems approach to teaching. This text provides sound advice on operating educational programs for health personnel, from practitioner competencies to instructional techniques, selecting clinical experiences, program administration and evaluation. Annotated references are provided at the end of each chapter in addition to an extensive bibliography.

Gagne, R.M. The Conditions of Learning. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1977.

The third edition of this popular book emphasizes the interpretation of learning events in terms of the information-processing model, which the author represents as a major advance in the study of human learning. He examines "learning conditions" for five categories of learning outcomes or capabilities: intellectual skills; cognitive strategies; verbal information; motor skills and attitudes. He deals with the "events of learning", an information-processing model of learning and memory from which one may form a description of conditions affecting the processes of learning and remembering. Although this book is not directed specifically to professionals in the health fields, the information and perspectives are applicable and useful.

Gagne, R.M., and Briffs, L.J. Principles of Instructional Design. New York: Holt, Rinehard and Winston, 1974.

This book is of particular value to teachers and educational specialists who have responsibility for the planning and operation of instructional programs. It describes methods based upon principles of human learning and performance analysis which can be used to design instructional experiences in a variety of areas. Four specific assumptions are made concerning instructional design: 1) it must be for the individual; 2) it has phases which are both immediate and long-range; 3) systematically designed instruction can greatly affect individual human development; and 4) instruction must be based on knowledge of how human beings learn. The first two sections deal with basic processes in learning and instruction; section three covers instructional systems.

Joyce, B., Weill, M. Models of Teaching. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1972.

Although this book does not deal specifically with health professions education, the wide variety of instructional models which are presented can easily be utilized in health professions training programs. The many options in curricula teaching are explored along with a framework for identifying and analyzing models of teaching. Interaction-Oriented Models which are presented include: Group Investigation, the Jurisprudential Model, Social Inquiry, and the Laboratory Method. Models presented in this book which are designed to affect information processing include: Concept Attainment, the Inductive Model, the Inquiry Training Model, the Biological Science Inquiry Model, the Advance Organizer Model and the Developmental Model. Models presented which are invidual-oriented include: Non-Directive Teaching, Classroom Meeting Model, and Awareness Training. Operant Conditioning is presented as a model for modifying behavior.

Mager, R.F. Goal Analysis. Belmont, California: Fearon, 1972.

This is a "how to do it" book for teachers who want to learn how to develop instructional goals.

Mager, R.F. Developing Attitude Toward Learning. Palo Alto, California: Fearon, 1968.

Mager focuses on the importance of producing students who are not only competent in their knowledge of a subject, but also maintain a continuing interest in that subject. He states the minimum teaching goal: that students have "favorable feelings" about the subject. Behaviors that indicate "approach" and "avoidance" responses are clearly identified and discussed. Examples of positive and aversive conditions for learning and modeling are included. Three principles that teachers can apply to help students "approach" a subject of study are outlined. Simplified procedures for teacher and student evaluation are also presented.

Mager, R.F. Preparing Instructional Objectives. Belmont, California: Fearon, 1975.

This small programmed text has been published in 10 foreign languages and remains popular as an introduction to the notion of instructional objectives. Mager demonstrates how to define a behavioral objective, provides exercises in stating them clearly, and emphasizes the need for explicit criteria for identifying successful outcomes. In 9 brief, clearly written chapters, the author covers the principles of preparing instructional objectives, cautions against common pitfalls and provides an opportunity for readers to sharpen their skills.

Popham, W.J., and Baker, E.L. Planning an Instructional Sequence. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1970.

This book contains 5 self-instructional programs designed to be completed by the reader. They deal with various aspects of instruction and are intended to provide a set of tangible competencies which can be employed by a teacher in making instructional decisions. The programs are designed around appropriate practice, knowledge of results, analyzing and sequencing learner behavior, perceived purposes and evaluation. Detachable, separate answer sheets and a separate mastery test for each program are provided. The material is aimed at individuals who are preparing for a teaching career at any level of instruction.

Miller, G.E. (Ed.). Teaching and Learning in Medical School. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press, 1961.

The book is an outgrowth of a collaboration between medical school faculty and School of Education faculty at the University of Buffalo in the 1950's. For years it was the only book written specifically for medical faculty. Though published in 1961, the ideas expressed remain useful for teachers today. Throughout the book two views are stressed: that fruitful learning occurs when learners are satisfying their own needs and goals; and that the purpose of teaching is to make individual learning more efficient and more effective.

Popham, W.J., and Baker, E.L. Systematic Instruction. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1970.

This book is designed both for beginning teachers who want to learn about the nature of instruction and experienced teachers who want to reflect on instructional strategies. Topics which are dealt with include: intuition versus verification, a goal-referenced instructional model, instructional objectives, curricular decisions, designing instructional activities, classroom transactions, classroom management, the evaluation of instruction and the teacher as experimenter.

Rogers, C.R. Freedom to Learn. Columbus, Ohio: Merrill, 1969.

Although not a recent publication, the dominant theme continues to be timely: can education meet the ever-accelerating social, economic and political tensions and changes in the world? Throughout the book, Rogers' view of people, his belief in the potential and wisdom of human beings and on the release of this potential for bringing about needed changes in education, are foremost. The first two sections are practical and deal with specific directions and tactics teachers may explore in experimenting with their classes. The third section provides some of the conceptual bases for such experimentation. The fourth part launches into the personal and philosophical underpinings and ramifications of Rogers' approach. Finally, Rogers offers practical programs for bringing about change in an educational system. The annotated bibliography contains useful suggestions for further reading.

Segal, A.J., Vanderschmidt, H., Burglass, R., and Frostman, T. Systematic Course Design for the Health Fields. New York: Wiley, 1975.

This comprehensive "handbook" for curriculum design in the health fields is divided into 4 major units: 1) overview of the course design model; 2) implementation problems; 3) methods to facilitate application; and 4) supplements -- a unit including step-by-step guidelines for performing each task in the course design needed. The materials are self-instructional but can also be the basis for class exercises or small group discussions.

Simpson, M.A. Medical Education: A Critical Approach. London: Butterworth & Co, 1972.

This book, as its title suggests, is a critical analysis of contemporary medical education. Calling on available research evidence and sound reasoning, Simpson brings many long established curricular and instructional practices under sharp scrutiny. While the examples and terminology in this book are mainly British, the principles cited and the proposals offered deserve the consideration of medical teachers throughout the industrialized world.